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ABSTRACT

The second in a series of four, this volume reports on a study designed to explore the home conditions under which young children in the English-speaking Caribbean islands, especially the underprivileged, are nurtured. Highlighted are those inseparable factors of the target islands that are likely to influence the living standards of each island and, consequently, the life style of children. Such factors include the location of each island with respect to its relationship to other regional and international areas, the quantity and quality of available human and natural resources, the economic status of the island and its people, the educational level and health status of the population, and the delivery of early childhood education services to young children.(MP)

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LIFE STYLE STUDY

CHILDREN OF THE LESSER WORLD IN THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING CARIBBEAN

Volume II: Ecological Characteristics Of The Target Areas

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D.R.B. GRANT

1981

The Bernard Van Leer Foundation, Centre for Early Childhood Education
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PREFACE

In Volume I* of the series of the "Life Style Study" an attempt was made to describe the contributions which some concerned educators and social scientists have made to an understanding of the lot of the "Children of the Lesser World in the English-speaking Caribbean." The focus then was on the home environment of the young child -- with scant reference to the island environment. In the said Volume I it was observed that the main theme of the studies and papers involved in the review seemed to have been that differences among the "haves" and the "have nots" are due to variations in the socio-economic status of the bread-winner in the family environment.

The circumstances of our times make it imperative that everyone concerned with the education and care of the under 6 year-olds, and especially the 0-3 year-olds, should be knowledgeable of more than the living conditions of these children in their comparatively closed systems that serve as contexts for development. The homes, like the school, cannot be insulated in the island community -- like islands cut off from the world which surrounds them. The Life Style Study sets out to discover and interpret for educational purposes the home conditions under which children, especially the underprivileged, are nurtured.

It is usual for educators to think of the community in terms of a particular town, district or village, and therefore interpret living conditions in the light of what obtains in such a neighbourhood. But in this "air age" the

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*Grant, D.R.B. Life Style Study: Children of the Lesser World in the English-speaking Caribbean: Volume I: The Literature in Retrospect. (Mimeo). The Bernard Van Leer Foundation Centre for Early Childhood Education, Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica, W.I., 1980.

local community (school and home) must be seen and inte preted within the national and regional contexts. The educator and professional care-giver must become acquai with the topography and ecology of the island community order to gain an intelligent perspective of the "pointe of disadvantage" in the midst of national and regional community structure, levels, settings, and processes an problems.

The researchers of the Life Style Study have come believe that:

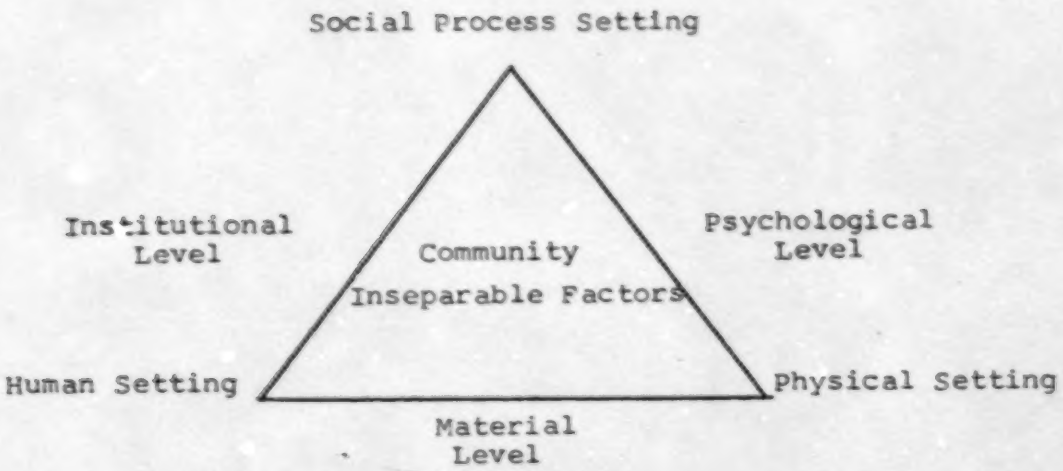
(i) in order to understand the import of the other Volumes, it will be necessary for educare personnel of 0-3 year-olds to become acquainted with the national topography and ecological characteristics of each of the islands in which the interviews were conducted,

(ii) the student of child development must know something of the national underlying strata, its physical settings, its historic development, its operating and social processes, its stresses, strains and problems, its economic uncertainty, its organised institutions and its major service agencies.

There are many dimensions of the study of these islands which should have some crucial impact on the developmen of the "behaviour settings" of the island population as a whole, and the children in particular. These dimensions may be represented as inseparable factors of the global+ community in the form of (i) Community Structure and (ii) Community Settings as shown in FIGURE A.

+In this Monograph the term "global" is used interchangably with island/national.

Fig. A



It was William James who set forth the principle that person and community are poles of one social process -- meaning that if individuals and culture groups are inseparable factors in community life, they should be related intelligently in order to ensure the maximum comprehension through observation and analysis; and application through inter-relationships. In the triangle (Fig. A) there is a schematic representation of the inseparable island community structures[+] which influence the living standard of individual household and consequently the life style of the children, especially the underprivileged. The material level includes the community's natural resources, the industries, the occupations which produce and distribute the goods as well as the housing and other facilities and services -- all of which have the potential for influencing the psychological adaptation[•] of the inhabitants, collectively and individually. At

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[+]Rugg, Harold: American Life and the School Curriculum. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1936.

[•]Altman. I. and J. Wohlwill. Human Behaviour and Environment: Advances in Theory and Research. New York: Plenum, 1976.

the institutional level the mass habits of the population become significant in determining community behaviour in such areas as: family forms, processes of government, religious practices, language habits and usage, and the monetary system and economic exchange. The other arm of the triangle -- the psychological level includes the motives that are central to survival, the fears that inhibit behaviour, the attitudes which determine acceptable conduct, and the ideas, values, and beliefs which influence and/or direct the behaviour of the whole or part of the population.

The "Settings" (the angles of the triangle, Fig. A) help to determine the quality of the "Levels" of the national community. In addition to the natural features of the place influencing the life-style and work habits of its people; the economic value and utilisation of the natural resources -- land, minerals, people -- of the country will determine the quality of the life-style of its inhabitants and their off-spring(s).

This study seeks to find answers to questions like the following, which it is hoped will contribute to the interpretation, understanding and educational implications of the responses to the "Life Style Study Interview Schedule": (i) location of the island with respect to its relationship to other regional and international areas, (ii) the quantity, and quality and utilisation of the human and material resources, (iii) the economic position of the island and the people, how the people make their living, and the class structure in the society, (iv) the economic group -- Less Developed Country (LDC) or More Developed Country (MDC) in the region, (v) the level of literacy and the educational level and health status of the population as a whole, (vi) the scope, quality and nature of the services provided by government, commercial

and private-non-commercial agencies, for the benefit of adults and children, (vii) the type and philosophy and stability of the Government responsible for the development of the island(s).

In the treatment of these and other questions some attempt will be made to highlight some features unique to each island or group of islands, as well as to give a summary treatment of many underlying denominators common to them.

This is the second of the series of monographs that will emerge from this research study funded by the Bernard Van Leer Foundation as part of its contribution to the International Year of the Child. The target areas for the study are:

(a) Antigua and St. Kitts, with Montserrat as reserve,

(b) St. Lucia and St. Vincent, with Dominica as a standby,

(c) Barbados,

(d) Jamaica

Because of the unsettled nature of the governments and political machinery in the Leeward Islands (group (a)) and the Windward Islands (group (b)) it was considered prudent to collect information in/from the reserves indicated, so that in the event of any eruption/dislocation occurring in one of the islands in the group, the reserve would be used to provide the representative responses from each regional group of islands. The islands which make up the target groups(a) and (b) belong to and represent the economically designated Less Developed Countries (LDC) in the Caribbean, and the target islands (c) and (d) are

classified as More Developed Countries (MDC) in the region. Up to before the last election (1979) St. Lucia was considered a 'gray area' island with the potential for moving into the MDC category.

The material for this monograph was obtained through contacts with Permanent Secretaries in the different Ministries of each government, interviews with staff members of Planning Divisions, and by extracting demographic and vital statistics from files and the Commonwealth Caribbean Population Census, 1970. In addition to the above sources, the cooperation of the following is also acknowledged: The UWI Documentation Centre; the Library of UNICEF, Jamaica; the Caribbean Community Secretariat; the Caribbean Food and Nutrition Institute; and the Eastern Caribbean Common Market Secretariat.

I am deeply indebted to my colleague, Elsa Leo-Rhynie, for her invaluable suggestions and critical reading of the manuscript.

D. R. B. Grant

1981

PHYSICAL SETTING

MAP OF THE WEST INDIES

From this map it will be seen that the West Indies are situated in the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of Central America. They lie in the tropics north of the equater -- 10°N to 30°N -- on an arc from Florida in the United States to north of the Orinoco River in Venezuela,

South America. Longitudinally, they are situated 60°W and 85°W. The body of water which surrounds these islands is known as the Caribbean Sea -- the Caribs, still found in Dominica, were one of the aborigines of the region.

The four largest islands -- Cuba, Jamaica, Hispaniola, and Puerto Rico -- are grouped together to form the Greater Antilles, and the others are known as the Lesser Antilles. These Lesser Antilles are further subdivided into two regions -- the Leeward Islands in the North and the Windward Islands in the South.

Linguistically, there are four main languages in the region - (i) English which is spoken by the English-speaking Caribbean Islands: Jamaica, Bahamas, Cayman Islands, Virgin Islands, Antigua, Montserrat, St. Kitts, Dominica, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Grenada, Trinidad and Tobago, and Barbados; (ii) Spanish is the mother tongue in Cuba, and Puerto Rico; but most of the English-speaking Caribbean Islands are making Spanish a compulsory second language in the schools; (iii) French is not only spoken as the official language in Martinique, Guadeloupe, Haiti, and the French side of St. Maarten, but it is almost a second language (standard or patois) in the Windward Islands; (iv) Dutch is the language of instruction and official communication in the Netherland Antilles.

Although on the map the islands seem very near to one another, the target areas for the study are not as close as they appear to be. Using Barbados as the starting point, the distances are:

Barbados to Jamaica : 1,200 miles,
Barbados to St. Lucia : 121 miles, and St. Lucia to St. Vincent : 46 miles

Barbados to Antigua : 321 miles, and Antigua to St. Kitts : 62 miles

HUMAN SETTING

When Christopher Columbus found and surveyed the Antillean Islands they were peopled by several groups, of which the most important were the Caribs and the Tainos, (the descendants of the Arawaks) who inhabited the Greater Antilles. Columbus found the Tainos to be a quiet and inoffensive tribe who lived mainly in the Greater Antilles, but the Caribs were the war-like, fierce "man-eating people" who were responsible for the extinction of the Arawaks -- the natives of the Lesser Antilles.

It was during his first voyage that Columbus discovered the Watling Island, a Bahamian Island, 12th October, 1492, and he is reported to have "skirted the northern shores of Cuba and Hispaniola."+ Guadeloupe was his next landing place, on his second voyage, during which he moved around the shores of some of the Leeward Islands. In his continued search for gold Columbus made another voyage (the third) in 1494 and found . Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago and Grenada, and in the following year he "skirted the Lesser Antilles and the Greater Antilles, moving from Martinique to Cuba."

+ Gardener, W.J. A History of Jamaica from its Discovery by Christopher Columbus to the Present Time. Elliot Stork: London, 1873; Reprinted 1908.

Cundall, Frank. Jamaica 1928. Hazel, Watson & Viney Ltd., London, 1928.

The Spaniards exploited the Caribbean islands and the adjoining mainland for gold, and in the absence of this mineral, the islands became the scenes of buccaneering, followed by settlements for agricultural pursuits. Trading was done with the Dutch who in the early days joined forces with the English and the French in common hostility to the Spanish dominance in the Caribbean.

Of the British colonies, St. Kitts was one of the first to be settled, and this was followed by Barbados, Nevis, St. Vincent, Antigua, and Monserrat. However, Jamaica was the first colony to be taken by force from Spain, by Britain, (1655) while the Bahamas were settled eleven years later. The Danes and the Dutch owned some of the smaller islands, but in 1917 the United States purchased the Danish islands -- the Netherland Antilles continue to "belong" to the Dutch.

It is interesting to observe that during the 150 years of Spanish domination of the Greater Antilles, the aborigines were destroyed and their place was taken by negroes imported from Africa. Cotton which was then the chief item cultivated by the natives of these larger islands, was soon to give pride of place to sugar-cane.

By the Treaty of Munster in 1648 Spain agreed that another nation could trade with the West Indies, and by the Treaty of Utrecht, the Assiento contract for carrying slaves from Africa to the West Indies was transferred from France to England.

After the colonisation of the region by the English, the plantation system was introduced with emphasis on the production and supply of cane sugar for the English market. The need for labour to implement this system led to the recruitment of slaves from the African continent up to 1807. When it came apparent that the large scale

slave trade business was ebbing, a pro-natalist policy was introduced in most of the sugar-cane producing islands, especially Jamaica where there was financial reward to plantation owners for every birth to a slave woman. In fact, any female slave who had six children was exempted from field labour. This could very well have been a contributory factor to illegitimacy and the large size of families which persists to the present time. In addition, indentured workers from India were introduced on the plantations, particularly in Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago where a substantial number of the present population are East Indians. It must be noted that Barbados was not a participant in the indentured-workers-scheme, which perhaps is largely responsible for its low infant mortality rate and policy of fertility control.

Regional Political/Economic Movements

The decade of the fifties was the last in which all the Caribbean Islands, with the exception of Haiti, The Dominican Republic and Cuba, were colonies of European powers. The decisive year was 1958 when a political federation was formed, comprising ten dependencies of Britain (excluding British Guiana and British Honduras) with the expressed hope of achieving political independence. The Federation of the West Indies was shortlived, as in 1962 Jamaica and Trinidad seceded, becoming independent states during that year, to be closely followed by Barbados in 1966, Dominica in 1978, and Antigua and St. Vincent in 1980. Internal self government for the other islands was established in 1967 through an associated status with the UK which was established under a new constitutional arrangement. The governments of St. Lucia and St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla are currently involved in negotiations with the British authorities for independence.

Grenada has had a revolutionary government since 1979.

As the advent of political independence highlighted the necessity for greater economic independence and achievement of a cultural identity, the Commonwealth Caribbean countries moved towards implementation of an integrated strategy. The idea of integration was fostered to speak to the disadvantages which accrued to the Caribbean nations by virtue of their small size, irrational economic organisation as a result of the history of colonialism, and the attendant and overriding problems of dependence on external markets for life resources. CARIFTA, the Caribbean Free Trade Area Agreement between Antigua, Barbados and Guyana came into being in 1967. It accommodated Trinidad-Tobago in May 1968, Jamaica in July 1968 and Belize in 1971. The agreement provided for the harmonization of fiscal incentives; the establishment of a common external tariff; agreement on a common policy towards foreign investment; establishment of regional integrated industries, and the setting up of a Regional Development Bank. In addition to Carifta, Jamaica, Trinidad-Tobago, Guyana and Barbados formed a Caribbean Common Market (CARICOM) in 1973, which was later joined by the Windward and Leeward Islands (with the exception of Antigua) in 1974.

Today the harsh reality of the lack of self-sufficient economic structures has highlighted the vulnerability of these Caribbean nations as they face rising unemployment, spiraling inflation, deteriorating balance of payments, fiscal crises, and the dramatic increases in the world price of petroleum and related products. In spite of the temporary boom in sugar prices in 1976, Jamaica in 1977 was forced to implement a stabilization programme, which was in large part funded by the IMF, in an attempt to arrest its alarming financial position. St. Lucia, St. Vincent and St. Kitts experienced a decline in consumption levels and hence in the standard of living for their people.

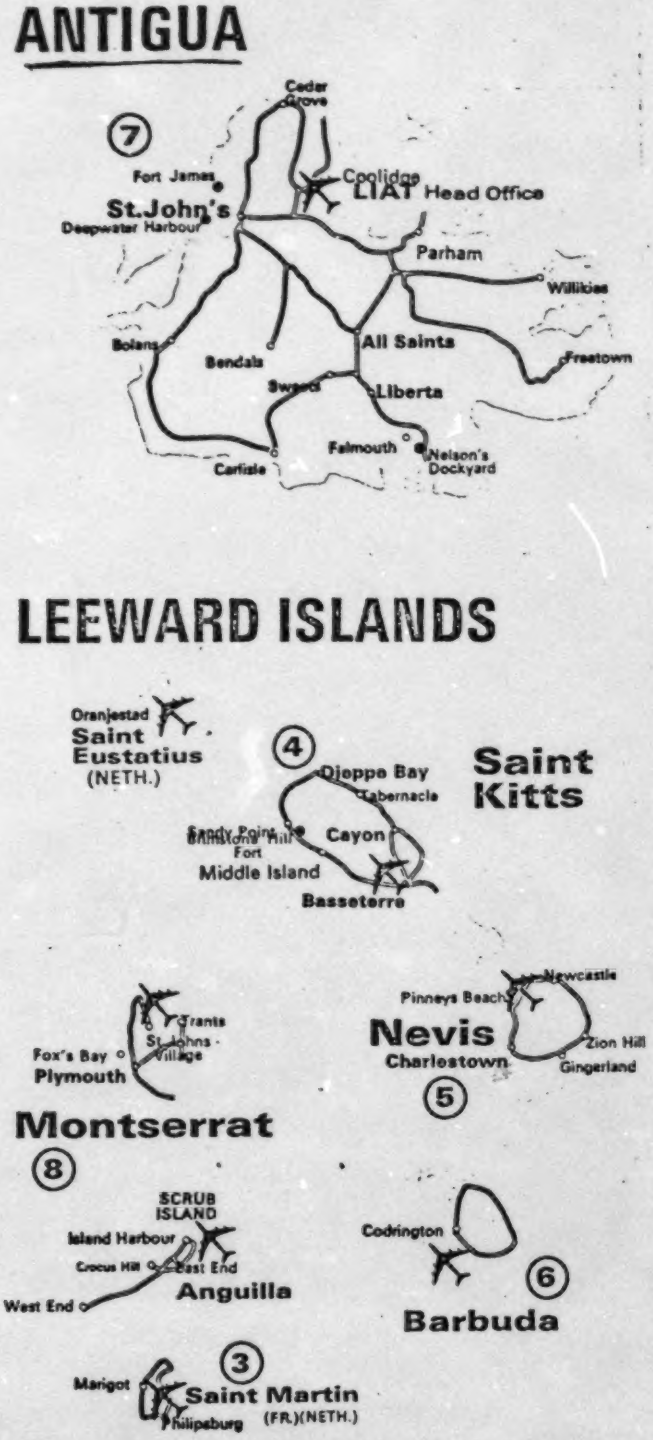
Barbados which achieved a surplus of $33.6m in its balance of payments in 1975, recorded a deficit of $39.2m in 1976, forcing Barbados into an austerity programme which they have succeeded in overcoming within four years (by end April, 1980).

The integration movement had to strengthen its thrust despite its many setbacks. In particular the Less Developed Countries in the region, of which St. Lucia is a part, are badly in need of preferential treatment in the transfer of capital within the region. That is, as a consequence of their relative small size, the lack of infrastructure and adequate financial and manpower institutions, these countries find it difficult to attract capital, and hence to development to the kind of climate required to stimulate development to the level of their more fortunate partners. So that the aim of narrowing the gap between the "less developed" and the "more developed" is being frustrated. What is being argued for, as a consequence, is a more enlightened approach to a common market with built-in specific distributional measures in favour of the less developed countries in the movement.

It is important to point out that the target areas of the Study are all subject to the exigencies of the international economic market. In particular fluctuations in international prices of sugar and banana coupled with the fragility of the tourist industry has far reaching implications for all of these islands.

Size and Position of Target Areas

(A) Map of Leeward Islands



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ANTIGUA

Antigua, with a population of 73,000 and its two dependencies, Barbuda and Redonda, is the principal island among the Leeward group of the English-speaking islands in the Eastern Caribbean. Barbuda (pop. 1500), a flat coral island of 62 sq. miles (160 km^2), lies 25 miles (40 km) north of Antigua and is a community principally dependent on fishing and lobster. Redonda is an uninhabited rocky islet.

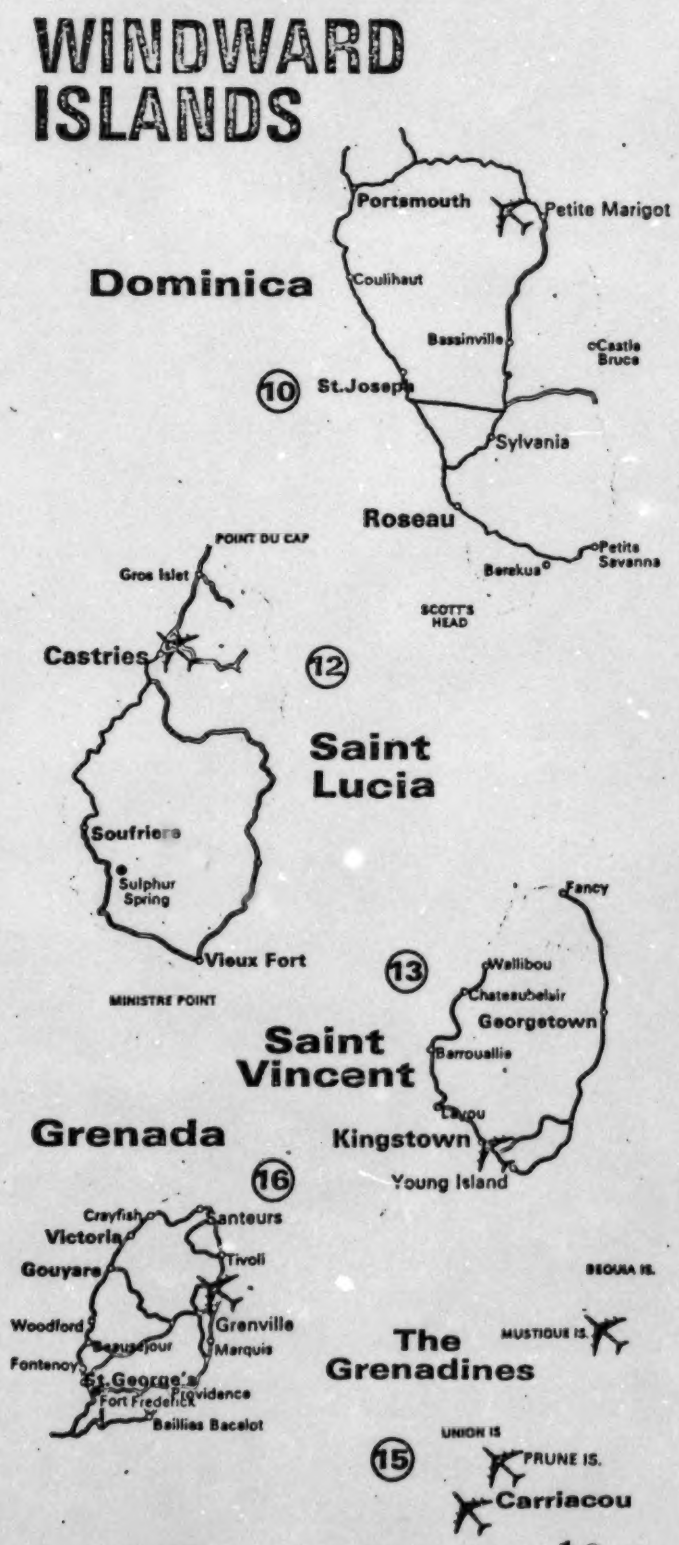
Antigua, with an area of 108 sq. miles (269 km), is characterised by its deep indented shores, lined by reefs and shoals with many natural harbours. The island is, for the most part, low lying. There are six parishes with St. John's in the north-west comprising the most heavily populated area. The city of St. John's in that parish is the island's capital and the one real urban centre in the State. Parham, the second town, is essentially a rural township. People throughout the island commute to St. John's for a majority of their service needs.

ST. KITTS

The island of St. Kitts, (pop. 49,700) with a mountainous forest-clad central area, has its greater land area (65 sq. miles or 168 km^2) on the lower slopes almost entirely cultivated in sugar-cane. Basseterre, the capital, is the one population centre of any significant size with Sandy Point in the north of the island as the second township. Basseterre serves as a distributing centre for merchandise to some neighbouring British and foreign islands.

Nevis, with an area of 36 sq. miles (93 km^2) is a volcanic conical shaped island two miles to the south of St. Kitts. It has daily motor launch and small plane services to the main island. The population of 12,000 is mainly centred in Charlestown and the District of Gingerland on the southeast coast. The best beaches lie along the west and north coastlines.

(B) Map of Windward Islands



ST. LUCIA

St. Lucia, a State in Association with Britain and the second largest of the non-independent Eastern Caribbean islands, lies 25 miles (40 km) south of Martinique and 20 miles (32 km) north of St. Vincent. It is 27 miles (43 km) in length and 14 miles (22.5 km) wide, and has an area of 238 sq. miles (616 km^2). It is of volcanic formation and fairly hilly, the highest peak being Morne Gimie (3,145 ft.). The climate is tropical marine, with mean temperatures ranging from 70°-85°F.

The island is divided into 16 parishes, with the majority of these representing a town or village. Most of the population of 163,300 people is concentrated in the two main development areas - the north-west (where Castries, the capital is located) and the south, with Vieus Fort as the island's growing second town and the location of the Hewanorra International Airport. The smaller Vigie airfield is located in the suburbs of Castries very near to one of the safest harbours in the region.

ST. VINCENT

St. Vincent, with a population of 106,152 comprising the main island of St. Vincent and the small Grenadine Dependencies of Bequia (pop. 5,000), Mustique (300), Mayreau (150), Canouan (200), and Union Island (2,500), two privately owned islands - Petit St. Vincent and Palm Island - as well as nine uninhabited islands, was granted independent status in 1980.

The main island, which is 18 miles (29 km) long and 11 miles (17.5 km) wide, (area: 150 sq. miles or 272 km^2) is dominated by an imposing volcanic range of mountains running like a spine down its full length. On the eastern (Windward)

side, land slopes gently to the coast through undulating country with flat valleys, in contrast to the terrain on the west (Leeward) side which is rugged and deeply ridged with only narrow alluvial plains along the river courses. Main population centres are Kingstown - the capital, in the south, Georgetown in the east, Chateaubelair, Barrouallie, and Layou in the west and Port Elizabeth on the island of Bequia.

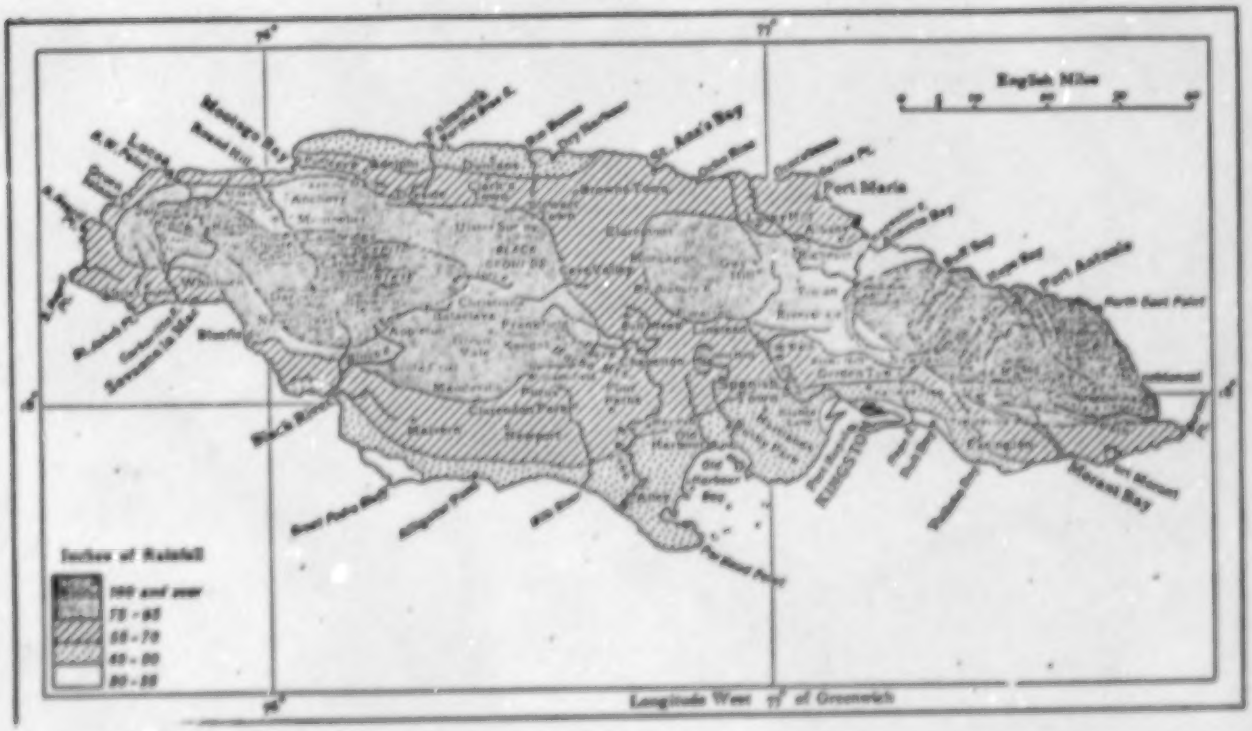
(C) Map of Barbados

Barbados lies in the Atlantic Ocean to the east of the main chain of the Leeward and Windward Islands. It has an area of 166 sq. miles (430 km^2) and a population of 256,400. The climate is particularly suited to growing sugar-cane, which is the main agricultural product. There are no known mineral deposits, but pockets of petroleum and natural gas have been discovered and these supply a proportion of the domestic needs.

The island is generally flat with the exception of the northeast parishes where the terrain is more rugged. The island is of coral formation and possesses beautiful beaches, one of its most valuable natural resources. The temperature varies from 70°F in December/January to 85°F in July/August. Rainfall varies from 45 inches in the coastal lowlands to 80 inches in higher ground in the interior.

While the population is spread throughout the island, the areas of heartiest concentration are Bridgetown (the capital), St. Michael and Christ Church.

(D) Map of Jamaica



Jamaica, the largest of the English-speaking Caribbean islands, is near the middle of the Caribbean zone. It lies on the direct route from the United States and Europe to the Panama Canal. The island with an area of 4,450.25 sq. miles is 152 miles long and its greatest width is 52 miles. The population is 2,200,000 with the concentration in Kingston (over 700,000), the capital, Montego Bay (over 50,000) the second city, and Spanish Town (over 43,000), the first capital under the Spaniards.

One of the most striking features of Jamaica is the mountainous nature of its surface. The Blue Mountains with the highest peak in the Caribbean, 7,500 ft, run for about 44 miles through the counties of Surrey and Middlesex. The low plains do not easily drain, and after heavy rains the country becomes marshy. By and large the plains which lie on the southern side of the island are all of alluvial formation. Since the principal range of mountains run from east to west, the rivers which originate on their slopes, generally flow to the north or to the south. Most of these rivers are not navigable because the height of the mountains from which they run cause them to run swiftly in deep beds and over waterfalls. Nevertheless, there are a number of mineral springs of high therapeutic value -- having warm saline and radioactive qualities which are controlled for the benefit of the public.

Because Jamaica is a very mountainous country the temperature varies widely in different parts of the island -- from 50° in Mandeville (2,061 ft. above sea level) to 75° in Kingston, at sea level. As a rule, rainfall is much higher on the north coast, but generally there are two rainy seasons -- May and November.

Agriculture is the basic industry of Jamaica, and the chief economic crops are bananas, sugar, citrus, and coconuts. The most important mineral in the country is bauxite, followed by gypsum which is used to make plaster boards and in the manufacture of cement.

SOCIAL PROCESS SETTING

Population

Over the past decade the populations of the English-speaking Caribbean islands have experienced steady growth, declining crude birth rates, declining crude death rates,

and are at present characterized by large numbers of children and young people.

The growth of these populations without a concomitant expansion of the economics is a concern of governments of the region, who have all opted for birth control measures. Among some of the real problems are the provision of services for children and the placing on the job market of the increasing numbers of young people who leave school, many of them with creditable certificates.

On the question of child bearing Roberts* points out that "for all populations the most important age range for starting child-bearing is 15-19 and once more proportions are greatest for East Indians." In St. Vincent fully 81% of the births are to unmarried women under 20 years. His detailed analysis of the age specific rate points out that maximum fertility occurs in the age range 20-24. A study of employment statistics shows a high percentage of unemployment among women in this age range. The significance of this latter statement lies in the fact that births to married women account for about 4% of all births under 20 in Jamaica, and 7% in Barbados. In the age group 26-29 about 41% and 26% of the births in Jamaica and Barbados, respectively are to married women. Another significant observation is that the highest degree of fertility seems to occur in St. Vincent. The family size there ranges from 5 to 6 plus children. In Barbados it is under 5, and the average for the region is approximately 4.5, with nearly 40% of the Caribbean population having 1.9 persons to a bedroom. The demographic data on the target areas are shown in Table I.

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*Roberts, G.W. Fertility and Mating in Four west Indian Populations. Kingston: ISER, University of the West Indies, Jamaica, 1975.

TABLE I

Showing Demographic Data in Target Areas, 1978

Target Areas	Population	Population Density (sq. mile)	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Percentage 0-4	Percentage Under 15	Average Family Size	Teenage• Mothers: 12-16 (1980)
Antigua	73,000	430	18.9	24.5	17.7	44.2	4.3	1,701
St. Kitts	49,700	492	24.4	42.1	14.72	48.7	4.5	997
St. Lucia	168,000	571.1	33.9	26.8	16.9	47.1	5.2	2,380
St. Vincent	106,152	708	33.8	55.5	16.67	51.2	5.9	2,310
Barbados	256,400	1,530	17.6	24.1	10.9	39.1	4.8	1,070
Jamaica	2,200,000	500	23.5	14.9	15.00	46.0	4.6	4,000+

An observable characteristic of the Caribbean population is the increasing rate of urbanisation. In the region there is a range of 37% to 78% of the population in the chief towns; and in all of the islands the urban population grew at the rate of 4.8% per annum between 1970 and 1975.

A very high percentage of the rural children suffer the effects of the substandard surroundings, isolation and the lack of services such as water, sanitation, light and recreational facilities. Unemployment is usually very high in these areas.

The adult population of these islands move from place to place in search of employment. All of the islands benefit from the Canadian household Help Scheme, and the USA Farm Workers' Scheme, but a sizeable number from the LDC's commute daily or weekly by boat to the Netherland Antilles, Barbados (during the cane reaping season), Trinidad and the American Virgin Island (St. Thomas) where they are steadily employed. The Conference

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+ Number recorded in <u>one</u> maternity hospital.

• This phenomenon is on the increase in the region -- now assuming frightening dimensions. In each island there are cases of 16 year olds having their second child, 18 year olds having their third child, and 28 year olds being grandmothers.

Report on the Needs of the Young Child[+] concluded that:

> "..... there is a connection between under-development and pressures for immigration of parents to other countries. The social effect on children would be similar, however, where economic development has drawn parents from rural to urban areas within the same country."

In addition to the data presented in Table I, there is evidence to the effect that overall the average female and male population in the target areas is 49.2 and 50.2 respectively; and 59.8 of the total population are below 25 years of age.

Basically, there are three social classes -- lower, middle and upper -- but the bulk of the people belong to the lower class. This is because class membership is determined chiefly by income, occupation, house type/residential area, and to a lesser degree one's ancestry. Caneworkers, and others who work with their hands are classified as belonging to the lower class, but the "busha" or overseer who supervises these workers, automatically belong to the middle class. At the same time anyone who can manage to get a high income or change his residential area, may become part of the middle or upper class.

People in the lower class group expect the middle and upper class folks "to behave well and set an example for us to follow." They are expected to be serious and to conduct themselves in such a way as to gain the respect of the others. For this and other reasons the lower class usually

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[+] The Needs of the Young Child in the Caribbean. Report of the Conference, 12th November to 22nd November 1967, Bridgetown, Barbados, W.I. sponsored jointly by the Government of Barbados and UNICEF.

shows respect, and humility in their behaviour relationship with the other classes.

Middle class people generally use "respect" titles when addressing upper class persons and occasionally for older men and women of the lower class. The class structure is perpetuated since from birth lower-class children are taught to show respect before/for the middle class and upper class adults and their children.

LIVING CONDITIONS

Regionally, poverty, hunger, and poor health are acknowledged as serious problems which need urgent amelioration. Poor children are exposed to:

(i) poor housing,

(ii) poor food,

(iii) substandard medical care and sanitation,

According to Dorothea McCarthy+, who researched about 17 studies,

> "environmentally deprived children tend to enter school at a considerable disadvantage when compared with their counterparts in the middle and upper classes."

Other research studies show that mothers who were themselves exposed to and lived under poor conditions are likely to become adults "less well grown and at greater biological risk as reproducers than is the case with their more fortunate sisters." In fact, from the Caribbean point of view, it seems

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+ McCarthy, Dorothea. "Language Development in Children." In Manual of Child Psychology, Leonard Carmichael (ed). New York. John Wiley & Sons; 1954, pp. 584-586.

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e that these women who begin to bear children young, likely to continue childbearing for a longer time, ough pregnancy to be subjected to poor health, sub- ition and medical care. The result, puny offsprings.

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About 25% t
ly, each member of the household of a poor family has shoes known as the "good" or the "church" shoes. The ave, in addition, a pair of slippers or "house" shoes ars on week-days (Monday to Saturday); and the father "drudging" boots, depending on his occupation, for wear. The colour of the "church" shoes is usually children have a pair of school shoes, and the girls, hose over 12 years of age, have a pair of "slippers" ear at home and when going on short errands, but the large go barefooted when not at church or school. 30% of the boys do not wear any shoes to school.

The "ch
dresses and
khaki pants.
women) are c
the wardrobe
or the child
urch" wardrobe is usually made up of a couple of white a black dress; a black suit and a couple pairs of Of course, since the West Indians (especially the ress and style conscious, the quality and size of change with the economic status of the parents and/ ren, as well as with the "foreign" connections.

Housing

The pro
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blem of housing is a very serious one, especially in eas of the Caribbean islands. Tables+ II, III, IV i) the percentage of the type of materials used for lls of the houses, (ii) the distribution of the num- in each house, (iii) the number of persons per nd (iv) the "percentage distribution of dwelling" by rship.

Since t
able than in
the Tables w
he urban/rural areas in Jamaica are more distinguish- the other islands in the study, the data in three of ill show urban/rural distribution for Jamaica, only.

+ Based on "The Commonwealth Caribbean Population Census, 1970."

TABLE II

Showing Percentage of Type of Material used for Walls house, 1976

Target Areas	Concrete	Wood	Nog	Stone	Wattle and daub	Brick	Others
Antigua	11.3	68.9	.89	.63	3.5	1.8	12.98
St. Kitts	10.6	70.3	0	.77	.03	.06	18.24
St. Lucia	8.0	90.4	.01	.17	.56	.08	.78
St. Vincent	23.7	55.0	.72	1.16	8.1	1.10	10.22
Barbados	9.57	74.57	.11	8.48	.07	1.17	6.03
Jamaica U	59.3	30.4	7.2	0.7	0.7	1.3	0.4
R	30.4	42.2	15.5	3.5	6.7	0.5	1.1

From Table II an indication of the durability of the houses can be obtained. It will be observed that in the rural areas of Jamaica nearly 50% of the houses were built of wood, and "wattle and daub", and over 75% of the urban houses were built of material with cement ingredient. Of course, the wood used in the rural area and urban areas ranges from light plywood box container material obtained from the shops to pitch-pine lumber from a lumberyard.

An examination of other data on the state of the buildings show that in:

(a) St. Kitts and Barbados: nearly 46% of the buildings were in fairly good condition, and 36% were in various states of disrepair;

(b) St. Lucia: 18% of the houses were not improveable, 54% needed some improvement, and 28% were in good condition;

(c) St. Vincent: 30% of the houses were classified as "good", and 40% as "non-improveable". The "others" in Table II for all the islands but Jamaica, refer mainly to buildings made of wood and concrete.

TABLE III

Showing Percentage Distribution of Number of Rooms in a House, 1976

Target Areas		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8+
Antigua		49.8	16.6	15.3	9.6	4.5	1.7	.18	-
St. Kitts		16.8	32.6	14.8	16.6	7.7	4.06	3.56	-
St. Lucia		12.00	38.8	14.00	21.00	6.00	2.8	1.8	-
St. Vincent		9	45.48	23.6	12.1	4.2	1.3	1.14	-
Barbados		2.5	17.2	21.4	38.00	12.4	2.9	1.08	-
Jamaica	U	42.3	19.6	11.7	7.5	5.9	3.3	3.4	6.3
	R	24.9	31.7	19.7	9.3	4.9	2.4	1.9	5.3

Looking at the Antigua data in Table III it will be seen that about 50% of the houses had one bedroom, 16.6% had no more than two bedrooms, and 31% had three or more bedrooms.

It will be observed from this Table that more peopl e in urban Jamaica were accommodated in one room dwellings, than in the rural areas. It will be noted, also, that a high er percentage of rural area dwellings had one, two or three rooms than was the case in the urban areas.

In the case of St. Vincent, when other census returns are studied with the data in this Table III, it will be seen that 35.6% of the households accommodated 55% of the population.

TABLE IV

Showing Number of Persons Per Household, 1976

Target Areas	Under 3	3 to 3.5	3.6 to 4.00	4.1 to 4.5	4.6 to 5.00	Over 5
Antigua				4.3		
St. Kitts				4.5		
St. Lucia					4.67	
St. Vincent						5.3
Barbados					4.8	
Jamaica				4.3		

A study of this Table IV along with other data shows that:

(a) in St. Kitts the average number of persons per room was 1.5, and in Antigua it was in the region of 2.1,

(b) in St. Lucia and Barbados the average number of persons per room ranged from 2.3 to 3.6,

(c) in St. Vincent 26% of the dwelling units had 1.2 persons per room, 22% had 3.4 persons, and 525 had over 5 persons, with 205 households having 6-13 persons in every room.

(d) in Jamaica there were six parishes with 4.4 to 4.9 persons per household, but on the average there were 1.9 persons per room in the rural areas, and 3.1 in the urban areas.

TABLE V

Showing Percentage Distribution of Ownership of Houses, 1976

Target Areas	Owned	Leased	Rented	Free	Squatted	Other
Antigua	26.8	1.4	54.7	7.4	5.2	4.4
St. Kitts	53.8	.33	33.1	10.8	.04	1.93
St. Lucia	28.2	.3	61.1	4.0	1.0	5.4
St. Vincent	77.5	.33	15.9	6.82	.1	.71
Barbados	61.54	.38	30.77	4.88	.015	2.42
Jamaica U	29.7	3.9	59.9	5.8	0.5	0.3
R	70.8	1.4	17.6	9.6	0.3	0.3

A study of Table V shows that more houses were owned in rural Jamaica than in the urban areas, but the rental of houses (59.9%) in the urban areas was much higher than in the rural areas (17.6%). However, only 52% of the houses, overall, were owner-occupied, and more rent-free dwellings were in the rural areas (9.6%) than in the urban areas (5.8%). In most rural cases these houses are "dead-lef" and in both rural and urban cases these houses are occupied by "live-in" house-helpers.

Health and Nutrition

During the International Year of the Child (1980) the whole world was reminded of the needs of and the rights of the child. In the English-speaking Caribbean it was reiterated that the child needs to be fed, to sleep, to be kept clean and healthy, to be protected, and to have opportunities for play, so that the Target Areas' committees were appointed to develop proposals for enhancing the achievement of the objectives of IYC. Each island, however, differed in the emphasis it placed on particular health and nutrition provisions, due mainly to the resources available. Table VI summarises the Target Areas' percentage of national budget and the per capita expenditure on health.

TABLE VI

Showing Percentage of National Budget and Per Capita Expenditure on Health, 1979

	Antigua	St. Kitts	St. Lucia	St. Vincent	Barbados	Jamaica
% of Budget	15.6	11	8.7	13.4	14.7	24.96
Per Capita	EC$79.20	EC$65.	EC$62.	EC$48.	EC$81.5	J$60.8

In the Caribbean the under weight of children at birth is a common feature among the poor. If 6½ lbs to 7½ lbs were to be accepted as the standard weight of a Caribbean baby at birth, then only about 16% to 20% of the births of the poor meet this standard. The exceptions to this conclusion are Barbados with 60%, Antigua with 56%, and Jamaica with 53.5%. In St. Kitts about 40% of the children have a weight -for-age of less than 90% of the standard according to the Gomez classification.

Generally speaking, the nutritional status of the Caribbean pre-school child is lower than that of the older children, and although in most of the islands enough food (ground provisions) is available to meet the hunger needs of the population, ignorance of the nutritional value of foods coupled with economic deprivation gives rise to widespread malnutrition, especially among young children. The health and nutritional status in each of the Target Areas may be summarised as follows:

(i) Antigua: The medical service is based on the employment of part-time district medical officers, but specialised services in surgery, opthalmology, psychiatry and radiology are available. Dental officers are also employed on a part-time basis. Although a Health Education Unit has been established, nutritional statistics for young children show a 6.8% moderate and 1% severe malnutrition. There is need to promote nutrition education to remedy the incidence of 43% of the children with some level of malnutrition, and 13% of the babies being immature at birth.

(ii) St. Kitts: Much emphasis is being placed on the use of locally available foods to replace the foods received from the World Food Programme. A high proportion of those who visit the clinics suffer from mild malnutrition, and the low birth weight of the babies causes much concern -- the 1975 survey showed that 13.4% of the babies born in that year weighed 5½ lbs or less.

(iii) St. Lucia: One of the chief on-going programmes is family planning which is undertaken by voluntary organisations on an island-wide basis. Dental clinics operate in five centres, and in the treatment of children the concentration is on the preventive aspect. The 1976 survey on the nutrition status of children showed that 13.3% of the young children suffered from mild to moderate malnutrition, 0.7% suffered from severe malnutrition, 10% were immature at birth, and only 20.8% had a favourable birth-weight.

(iv) St. Vincent: Health care is being promoted at the community level with full community involvement. There are three dentists on the island, but only one is employed part-time by the Government. The high infant death rate is due to malnutrition and gastro-enteritis. About 8.9% of the young children show symptoms of mild to moderate malnutrition, and nearly 2% to severe malnutrition. The extent of immature births is in the region of 10.4%, and the favourable birth weight is recorded for only 3.7%. Health education is given in all the grades of the primary schools at the rate of two periods per week throughout the year.

(v) Barbados: A Child Health Committee - a voluntary organisation with a government subsidy -- operates a number of clinics and provides maternal services, and health services for children in fifteen centres. In addition, there is a National Nutrition Centre which organises health education programmes thrcugh the Applied Nutrition Programme which is community based. Through the School Health Service free opthalmic and dental care are provided for school children. A survey conducted in 1976 showed that 19.2% of the babies were suffering from moderate to mild malnutrition, and only 0.3% of them from severe malnutrition. It was noted also that fully 19% of the babies were immature at birth.

(vi) Jamaica: The government monitors 57 Health Centres which have been converted into Integrated Centres to offer all forms of medical care. All the government health services - clinics, dispensaries, etc. -- are serviced with subsidised foods for distribution to children who visit the clinics/centres. Over 70% of the inmates in the children's hospital are suffering from some form of malnutrition. The report from the Jamaica Nutrition Advisory Council concluded, <u>inter alia</u>, that "more than any disease, malnutrition is responsible for killing large numbers of Jamaican children." Statistics in 1978 showed a ratio of 1 doctor to 3,009 people; and 1 dentist to 22,800 and 50,000 people in and outside the Corporate Area, respectively.

It is safe to conclude that the governments of the respective territories have not been unmindful of the health problems confronting the overall population and in particular mothers and children, and their concern is reflected in the increasing budgetary allocations to the health services, annually. Three main health strategies which have been developed in the region in conjunction with international organisations (WHO, PAHO, UNFPA, IPPF and UNICEF) are the Strategy and Plan of Action to Combat gastro enteritis and malnutrition in children under two years of age, 1972, the Maternal and Child Health Strategy, 1976, and the Environmental Health Strategy, 1978. These strategies spell clearly the goals to be achieved and set targets for the achievements of these goals.

It is clear that the rate of infant death in any country is an indication of the level of the unhealthy conditions under which the people have to live. In all the Caribbean islands, although the water supply may be considered fairly satisfactory to good, the toilet facilities and the process of garbage disposal leave much to be desired - both are breeding grounds for disease carriers. The status of the toilet facility and the water supply is shown in Tables VII and VIII. The situation in Jamaica (VII J, and VIII J) is shown separately in order to highlight the rural/urban differences.

TABLE VII

Showing the Percentage of the Type of Water Supply, 1976

Target Areas	Percentage of Population With		
	Piped water in house	Public water supply within 1 mile	No water supply
Antigua	42%	57%	12%
St. Kitts	64%	36%	-
St. Lucia	34%	42%	24%
St. Vincent	25%	65%	5%
Barbados	70.7%	29.3%	-

TABLE VII J (Jamaica)

Showing Percentage of Dwellings (Urban/Rural) by Type of Water Supply

Type of Water Supply	Percentage of Dwellings With Each Type	
	Urban	Rural
Public piped into dwelling	33.0	2.8
Public piped into yard	43.7	9.0
Private into dwelling	6.8	3.6
Catchment	1.4	11.5
Stand-pipe: public	11.6	40.2
Public tank	0.6	9.3
Others: wells, springs, rivers	2.1	23.5

A study of this Table VII J. shows the great difference between the type of water supply available to urban and rural Jamaica. Whereas piped water was served to 83.3% of the dwellings and yards in the urban areas, 40% of the rural area dwellings had to depend on the standpipe, situated one to three miles from their houses; and 23% relied on the supply from springs, wells, and rivers.

TABLE VIII

Showing Percentage of Dwellings With Type of Toilet Facilities

Target Areas	Percentage of Dwellings With		
	Water closet	Pit latrines	No facilities
Antigua	30	70	-
St. Kitts	30.6	63.4	6
St. Lucia	18	49	33
St. Vincent	20.2	75	4.8
Barbados	56.5	41	3.5

TABLE VIII J. (Jamaica)

Showing Percentage Urban/Rural Dwellings With Type of Toilet Facilities

Type of Total Facility	Percentage of Dwellings in		
	Whole Island	Urban	Rural
Water closet	31	63	5.5
Pit	65	36	89.5
None	4	1	5

It will be observed that overall the urban population has better toilet facilities than the people in the rural areas of the island. Of course, some of the "pit" type of facilities really belong to the "bush" category with no privacy except that provided by the surrounding vegetation.

Communication

In the Target Areas communication by water is by means of coastal steamer or boats which call at small ports to collect produce or to land goods. Jamaica is the only island with two or three rivers large enough to be navigable for short distances.

The only railway line in the English-speaking Caribbean is found in Jamaica. It runs through important banana lands, provides transportation for sugar-canes in the low lands, and services some of the bauxite deposits. Additionally there are passenger trains which connect several towns of the island, especially the coast towns of Kingston, Montego Bay and Port Antonio.

All the islands have a double system of roads - main roads and parochial roads. Jamaica has a very good network of roads, with the parochial roads joining the productive districts of rural Jamaica with the main roads.

The facilities for and means of communication in the other islands of the Target Areas are shown in Table IX.

TABLE IX

Showing Other Means of Communication In Other Islands

Target Areas	Roads (Miles)			Motor Vehicles		Telephone
	Paved	Secondary	Others	Number	Ratio to Population	% of population
Antigua	312	408	256	8,112	1:9	N/A
St. Kitts	33	69	26	3,030	1:16	2.5
St. Lucia	81	464	128	N/A	1:18	10.1
St. Vincent	66	126	462	N/A	1:20	9.8
Barbados	800	150	-	N/A	1:8	20%

By and large the postal system in all the islands is reasonably good, and there is an easy flow of mails to and from the post offices. In the main air transport between the less developed countries is by the Leeward Island Air Transport - (L I A T) which is unreliable. However, Antigua, St. Lucia, and Barbados (with its National Airline) are served by other international airlines.

Education

The expansion of the education system between 1950 and 1960 was one of the most outstanding features of development in the Caribbean. During the decade of the 60's illiteracy in the region varied from 6% to 61%; but in the 70's the range was from 2% to 54%. From this positive change in the level of literacy it would seem that the percentage of the population without any schooling had dropped appreciably in all of the islands. Table X gives an indication of the national level of education in the Target Areas.

TABLE X

Showing National Level of Education in the Target Areas, 1976

National Level	Percentage of Population					
	Antigua	St. Kitts	St. Lucia	St. Vincent	Barbados	Jamaica
Primary	78.6	84.25	59.6	83.7	97.6	87.9
Secondary	3.7	12.46	7.1	10.4	24.7	10.9
College	0.8	N/A	1.5		3.2	4.1
University	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	2.1	3.6
Vocational	0.8	N/A	0.8		1.1	1.2
Others	0.1	0.4	1.5	0.7	0.4	4.4
None	15.5	2.22	28.7	5.6	1.8	15.62

In addition to the educational provision indicated in Table X, all the islands are committed to the educare of their under 6 year-old children. Quantitatively Barbados and Jamaica offer leadership with respect to enrolment -- 60% and 86.6% respectively, of the population in the age-group 3-6 year-old. Other provisions of importance to this study are facilities for the care of the nursery age children. In Antigua there are five government-owned creches with an average enrolment of twelve children each, 6 months to 4½ years old. These creches are supplemented by the St. John's Day Care Centre which caters for thirty children from 2 months to 5 years old, and the Sir Luther Wynter Pre-School Child Development Centre (initiated by the UWI Extra Mural Department) which offers day nursery services for twenty-five children aged 2 to 5 years. This Centre proposes to be multi-dimensional in its approach to ECE+ The four government-sponsored and the one church-sponsored day nurseries in St. Kitts give child care to an aggregate of ninety children, 6 months to 3 years old. The position in

+ Early Childhood Education is abbreviated ECE.

St. Lucia, where the Centres are manned by retired teachers, is similar to that in St. Kitts, but in St. Vincent the eleven Infant Day Care Centres accommodate 2½% (420) of the pre-school population. At. present there exist in Barbados twenty-six day nurseries scattered throughout the island, catering for a total of 1,080 children between the ages of 3 months and 5 years. There is a total staffing of 191 day-care workers, most of them lacking appropriate training.

In Jamaica surveys show that there are approximately 50 voluntary group-sponsored Day Care Centres throughout the island which cater to some 1,400 children. In addition to these, 259 backyard nurseries have been identified, and these serve over 4,000 children between the ages of 6 months and 4 years.

While Day Care facilities in the islands are critical needs, there is a great deal of room for improvement of standards of care, and physical conditions, particularly in the Backyard Nurseries.

Income

On the sensitive question of income, it would appear that while the per capita income of the poorest 20-25% of the population in the region has either decreased or remained stationary, that of the richest 10-15% seems to have increased -- a case of the poor getting poorer, and rich, richer. This is specially so among the teenage mothers. Juan Terra* observes that:

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* Terra, Juan Pablo. "The Situation of Children in Latin America and the Caribbean". A paper prepared by UNICEF Regional Office for the Americas, 15th March, 1979, par. 27, 31, 32.

> "Much of this position is due to the fact that agriculture (the mainstay of the region) grew at less than 1% annually, and was unable to absorb the increase in the labour force -- The total underutilisation of the work capacity of the region at the beginning of this decade was approaching 29% --- Studies carried out in the region on different aspects of critical poverty have shown that ---- some 40% were in the category of poor, that is below the level of satisfying minimum needs, and --- some 19% were in the category of 'indigent', that is, unable to provide even for the cost of food --- The most disturbing aspect of the situation is --- that the inequality appears to be on the increase."

In all the islands the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for 1978 fell by about 1.7%, and the real per capita gross domestic product fell by 3.0% while a decline of 7.6% in real consumption per capita was recorded. In addition high inflation resulting from government's attempt to redress the balance of payments situation reduced private consumption. This in turn resulted in a greater population chasing a diminishing quantity of goods. In a 1977 labour survey conducted in Jamaica it was discovered that:

7.7% of the population earned no income

34.3% earned under J$20, weekly

36.9% earned between J$20 and under J$50, weekly and

21.1% earned J$50 and over, weekly.

An underemployment Income Index (1973) for all the LDC's in the Eastern Caribbean, disclosed that whereas in St. Kitts it would take 7.72 days for an unskilled labourer to work to buy a specified food basket, in Antigua it

would take him/her 2.68 days and in St. Vincent, 4.89 days The per capita GDP 1977) for St. Lucia was US$485.00, with the 100 acre-farms generating only 20% of the total income and the under 10 acre-farms accounting for 59% of the total income.

Gross Domestic Product in Barbados rose at an average 10% per annum for the period 1974-1978, achieving a growth rate of 7% during 1979. GDP per head was estimated at Bds.$4,485 in 1979. In terms of the percentage shares of GDP in the various sectors, wholesale and retail trades accounted for 18.7% in 1978 and 19.3% in 1979; Government Services accounted for 15.8% in 1978 and 15.7 in 1979; 11.6% for tourism in 1970 compared to 11.8% in 1979; 11.3 1978 and 1979 for manufacturing; 5.4 in 1978 and 1979 for sugar; and construction fell from 7.9 in 1978 to 5.9 in 1979.*

Employment and Occupation

One of the vexed problems common to the region is that of unemployment. In Dominica, for example 35% of the population is unemployed or just partially employed, with a poverty index of 3.74. In Antigua 25% are unemployed, and there is a poverty index of 2.68. There are more serious cases of 40% to 60% unemployment. World Bank sources put the average poverty index at 4.23 for the Less Developed Countries, and 2.38 for the More Developed Countries in the region.

The total labour force in St. Lucia was estimated at 35,151 in 1978, with a breakdown of 22,703 males and 12,448 females. The population between the ages of 14-24 was 16,360 of which 10,430 were men and 5,930 were women. Economic activity is largely concentrated in the production of bananas, coconut and vegetables for export, and tourism and

* Barbados, Economic Report, 1979. Bridgetown, 1980.

manufacturing. Unemployment is estimated at 13% and consists largely of youth under 25 years.

As a result of the upward swing in the development of industry and tourism, there has been a marked shift of labour away from agriculture and an increased migration into Castries. The island's industrial activity is primarily undertaken by foreign investors, mainly because indigenous ventures are handicapped by the lack of technical and managerial skills and the underdevelopment of physical facilities needed to promote investment. In fact the island is in the UNICEF's category 1(b), representing countries which receive high levels of assistance.

In 1979 the labour force of Barbados was estimated at 107,900 persons of which 50,000 were females, and 57,900 were males. Unemployment for both sexes was 12.8% in 1979, a figure representing 8,800 women and 5,000 men. Given the ratio of women to men in the labour force, Barbados has the highest participation rate of women of the countries under review.

In terms of the distribution of the labour force the manufacturing, trade and services sectors of the economy employ the highest number of persons.

Sugar production continues to be the mainstay of the economy accounting for 41,400 acres, between 30 and 45 percent of total exports, and employs 18,000 workers in season and 10,000 off season. In the manufacturing sector sugar processing is the main industry followed by the production of edible oils, soap, margarine, and lard compounds. Barbados' estimated energy consumption is approximately 6,000 barrels of oil per day while 284,000 were produced locally in 1979 reducing the volume of annual imports from one million barrels to 929,000. Considering the high costs of fuel and imported goods, Barbados experienced an overall

surplus of $27.7 million mainly as a result of high capital inflows from tourism -- 1979 net earnings to the tune of $302 million.

Jamaica's economy, while still relying on agriculture as its main employer of labour, is fairly diversified, with public administration, commerce, and manufacturing sectors accounting for high levels of absorption of labour. In spite of the ability of the economy to absorb a significant amount of labour force,unemployment rates were very high in 1978, (about 33%) primarily among workers, craftsmen, unskilled manual and general occupations, and clerical and sales workers. (Table XI)

TABLE XI

Showing Number Employed and Percent Unemployed by Occupation, 1977-78*

Occupation	October 1977		April 1978		October 1978	
	Number employed ('000)	Percent unemployed ('000)	Number employed	Percent unemployed	Number employed ('000)	Percent unemployed
Total Classifiable Labour force..	699.2	18.2	714.8	17.2	702.1	18.8
Professional, Technical, Administrative, managerial, and related occupations.....	61.4	10.3	64.7	8.9	59.8	9.7
Clerical and sales workers	85.6	20.9	91.4	19.8	81.1	21.6
Self-employed and Independent Occupations.....	261.1	5.5	270.1	5.8	260.3	6.6
Service workers..	86.5	34.1	84.0	33.6	80.8	38.6
Craftsmen, Production process and operatives.....	91.2	24.7	86.3	24.2	93.1	24.9
Unskilled, manual of general occupations.....	110.9	23.4	108.0	23.2	104.0	23.5
Occupation not specified....	1.9	5.0	2.3	7.7	3.0	17.9

Source: Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 1978

In cont[illegible]
administrati[illegible]reet, professional, technical, managerial,
unemployment.[illegible]ve, and the self-employed had very low rates of
the economy [illegible] This data reveal a significant contraction of
construction [illegible]especially in labour intensive industries, like
[illegible] and manufacturing.

This was[illegible] in part due to the closure of firms precipi-
tated by the[illegible] balance of payments problem experienced by the
government a[illegible]nd the resultant inability to procure raw
materials, a[illegible]s well as, the decline in new capital investment
venture on t[illegible]he part of established entrepreneurs.

The sit[illegible]uation is even more aggravated when one looks at
the data for[illegible] women (Table VII).

TABLE XII

Showing Persons Employed and Percent Unemployed by Industry and Sex, 1970*

	Both Sexes		Male		Female	
	Numbers employed ('000)	Percent unemployed	Numbers employed ('000)	Percent unemployed	Numbers employed ('000)	Percent unemployed
Total Classifiable Labour Force...	702.1	16.9	425.0	11.4	277.1	28.0
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing...	252.1	5.8	186.0	5.6	66.1	11.5
Mining, Quarrying and Refining	5.7	12.5	5.1	12.3	0.6	16.3
Manufacture....	78.1	21.1	58.9	16.0	19.4	33.5
Construction and Installation	35.0	30.3	34.0	30.7	1.0	29.1
Transport, Communication and Public Utilities....	36.8	13.2	32.9	12.9	3.9	16.3
Commerce....	91.5	14.7	32.4	8.2	59.1	17.9
Public Administration.....	103.2	22.8	68.1	15.6	34.9	37.8
Other Services....	99.5	16.6	53.8	12.0	45.7	22.6
Industry not specified	5.9	28.7	3.7	20.8	2.2	38.3

*Source: Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 1970.

From a study of Table XII it will be observed that over 25% of the employed women were in Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing. It is interesting to note, also, that although more women were employed in Public Administration and in Commerce, there was the percentage of unemployment in the industries listed in the Table was consistently higher among the women. Overall, unemployment among the male labour force was 11.4% but fully 28% of the female labour force was unemployed. This is particularly critical since female heads of households are generally the key of life for most of the underprivileged Jamaican families.

Agriculture, export agriculture, dominated by bauxite and sugar and its by-products, and tourism are the corner - stones of the economy of the Target Area. Tourism is the largest source of foreign exchange and the largest contributor to GDP, and major employer. The governments recognizing the problems inherent in such an economy, are putting emphasis in their development strategies on export promotion, focusing on the manufacturing sector as new source of employment. On the other hand, mining is peculiar to Jamaica, with the bauxite industry being the chief among others, the primary output being very significant, and both being steady employers of labour. In fact, no single sector can occupies a predominant position in the economy of the island. The growth of the manufacturing, mining and construction sectors, and the development of the tourist trade, must get these along with agricultural sector to form a sound economic base to withstand the filling off of activity in any one direction.

SOCIAL SERVICES

Early childhood education generally and the supporting services are financed publicly and privately by local, regional and international agencies. In the Islands financial support is received from

(c) the governments, in the form of subsidies and/or direct responsibility for some services,

(b) voluntary agencies raise funds to support the pre-school institutions under their charge, and provide some health and nutrition services,

(c) church and church-groups sponsor some of these early childhood education institutions,

(d) service labs, friendly societies, community groups and organizations undertake to adopt institutions that provide day care services for the underprivileged.

Since the advent of PEIP[a], 1968, especially during its years of expansion, 1968-1972, education of the basic school child was considered in terms of the functional interactivity of home and school. It was hypothesized that if parents had a more adequate understanding of the needs of their young children, the early stimulation and development of these children would be enhanced, and therefore contribute to the realization of their potential. This belief gave birth to the concept of Parent Education which has become an essential element of every pre-school programme, and some funded projects in the region.

In Antigua family life education is not a special responsibility of any one person, but some Community Development Field Workers do help to organize programmes for parents and community groups. Family life and parent education programmes in St. Kitts and St. Vincent are developed by OLD/HMFSA for the parents who are workers in organized industry and agriculture. The work in parent

[a]PEIP: Project for Early Childhood Education.

education in St. Lucia is undertaken by CANSAVE, mainly because the pre-school services are sponsored by this organisation with very little government help. Barbados has a well organised voluntary agency which provides Parent Education for Development in Barbados (PAREDOS). The programme funded by CADEC, deals with, inter alia, parents and the problems involved in child rearing. In Jamaica every Day Care and early childhood education programme has a built-in parent education component. For this reason the co-ordinators and field officers of these programmes are responsible for the development and operation of this component.

It is interesting to note that immediately preceding, during and after the International Year of the Child the governments in the region recognised the need for regulations regarding the care and welfare of the pre-school child. Attention to and the need for setting standards for the operation and administration of Day Care Centres were highlighted during IYC, with a view to ensuring that these Centres do make a "proper contribution to the child's nutrition, and provide health and social services." An analysis of the Provision for Educare and Protection of children in the English-speaking Caribbean and Legislation relating to the family has been documented in Volume I+ of this series of Monographs.

+Grant, D.R.B. Life Style Study: Children of the Lesser World in the English-speaking Caribbean, Volume I: The Literature in Retrospect. BVLF Centre for Early Childhood Education, Mona, Kingston 7, 1980 pp. 48-57.

Handicapped

Some gains have been made in the inclusion of handicapped children in early childhood education programmes in Barbados, St. Lucia and Jamaica, but it must be admitted that these gains have not been general throughout the region. In Jamaica, in addition to the Hope Valley Experimental School (4-12 year olds) where the physically handicapped work side by side with the normal children, plans are afoot to have at least 10% of the handicapped children included in the regular Day Care Programmes. In addition, there is the Dutch funded Child Assessment and Research in Education (CARE), at Mico Teachers' College which is intended "to train teachers in special education and diagnosis and give corrective treatment to learning disabilities in children."

ISSUES AND NEEDS

In each island the human resources necessary to make the programmes for young children viable are in excess of the available supply of trained personnel. One result of this disparity is that most of the approved services are operating below what is expected of them. However, the use of para-professional staff to supplement/support the trained staff is yielding some positive results, but there is desperate need for an organised and comprehensive training programme for these aides and for personnel at all other levels of involvement in the health, care and education of the young child. The training needs of the islands are summarised by Barbados.

> "However, for the improvement of the present services and the development of new ones in order to cater for a larger number of young children more trained staff are required. In the area of early childhood education there is a need for a comprehensive training

> programme taking into account the qualitative aspect of such training as well as the increasing number of teachers needed for the teaching of children at the early childhood stage. Normally, training assistance should be related to Government's commitment to provide special level personnel for the country's programmes."

Young children should be exposed to a variety of toys, games and play equipment. Unfortunately, only 10% of the institutions have suitable indoor and/or outdoor facilities. The situation is a bit improved in some islands because of UNICEF's contribution in this area, but not many teachers know how to make effective use of the equipment -- children are left to jump and hop in them without much guidance for growth. In addition, nearly all of the school programmes are characterised by a lack of instructional, concept building, and reinforcement materials.

Another very important issue is that of the scarcity of properly equipped and organised play areas for young children, especially those who are from homes with limited space in/outside the house. Over the years it has been recognised that with the increase in population, housing would become a problem. The congestion resulting from this condition contributed much to the inadequate provision for parks and playgrounds for young children.

CONCLUSION

From the factual information documented in this Monograph on the Ecological Characteristics of the Target Areas of the Life Style Study, it will be seen that despite the limitations in resources, the governments are concerned about and aware of the problems and needs of the young child. It will be observed, also, that although the Target Areas are different in size they have many things in common -- colonisation, industry, mother tongue, and of

course,
the prov climate. Their differences are in the quantity of
quality vision, and their common denominator is in the
It is wi of their global community interest and problems.
and dime thin these quantitative and qualitative contexts
be inter nsions that the Life Style of the 0-3 year olds will
the rest preted, not in isolation from, but in relation to
a whole, t of the people, places and things in the island as
, and the English-speaking Caribbean in general.

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